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Kumano

The Japanese High School

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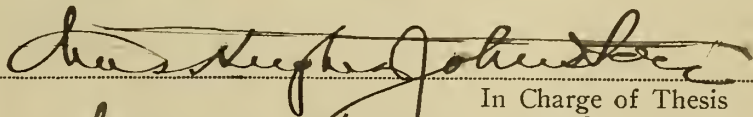
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THE GRADUATE SCHOOL

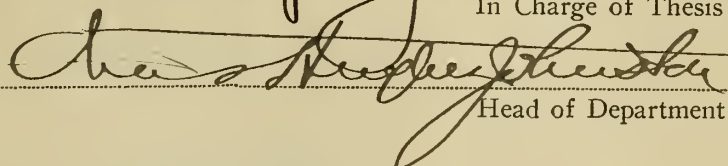
June 27, 1917

I HEREBY RECOMMEND THAT THE THESIS PREPARED UNDER MY SUPER-
VISION BY Kichijiro Kumano

ENTITLED The Japanese High School

BE ACCEPTED AS FULFILLING THIS PART OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
DEGREE OF Master of Arts in Education


In Charge of Thesis


Head of Department

Recommendation concurred in:*

} Committee
on
Final Examination*

*Required for doctor's degree but not for master's.

4 Feb. 17 C. Wiley

THE JAPANESE HIGH SCHOOL

BY

KICHIJIRO KUMANO

Graduate Hiroshima Higher Normal School, 1908.

THESIS

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the

Degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

IN EDUCATION


IN

THE GRADUATE SCHOOL

OF THE

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS

1917



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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter

Introduction

I Administration and Organization

II Finance

III Supervision

IV Teaching Force

V Curriculum and Types of Teaching

VI Conclusion

VII Bibliography

INTRODUCTION

In this thesis we describe the Japanese High School as it is with due consideration for conditions as they exist and also as they should be. Every effort has been made "to hit the high spots," good and bad, in Japanese education in order to present the peculiar spirit or atmosphere in the field. Japan is now in her transitional stage from blind imitation to the conscious adopting and harmonizing of the Occidental civilization with that of the Orient. A kind of tidal wave of unrest is at present sweeping through the Japanese educational world, and the future outlook is still more unsettled; as the Government, through Baron Kikuchi, has recently indicated a possible reorganization or at least readjustment of our system of national education. The spirit of inquiry and discontent has invaded the most progressive class, and time-honored methods and traditional aims are being challenged and criticized. Naturally in the process of this presentation, we touch some standing problems of Japanese education, referring to the foreign practice.

The material herein presented was gathered partly from American authors, but largely from Japanese authorities or through first-hand contact with her schools and eminent educators.

CHAPTER I

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION AND ORGANIZATION

1. Japan, like other monarchies, has a highly centralized civil administration. It may be divided into (1) Japan proper, and (2) the new territories. Of these new colonies, each has a separate administration and is under the Emperor's direct control. The Bureau of Education manages the education in Japan proper. Japan proper is divided into 256 "sub-prefects" which includes (a) city, (b) town, and (c) village. Each of these civil divisions, legally though not in practice, is an independent self-governing body, having its own government, and supports and manages its own education within its jurisdiction. At present, elementary education is conducted by city, town, or village; secondary education by prefecture or sub-prefecture; and higher education by the large city or state. All high schools, except a few private or sub-prefecture schools, are maintained by the prefecture where they have, under the governor, four civil Departments, one of which is devoted to education with one superintendent as its head, three or four inspectors and several minor officials. The Japanese high schools are directly maintained and supervised by the local government, and indirectly controlled by the Central Bureau of Education.

2. The Bureau of Education as a cabinet in the national government comprises (a) education, (b) medicine, (c) observatories of latitude, earthquakes, meteorology, (d) fine art, (e) libraries, (f) museums and (g) religion. It has three Departments; (1) Tech-

nical Education, (2) Special Education, (3) Common Education. Secondary education falls under Common Education. Each department has one director, one private secretary, two secretaries, three councilors, two textbook inspectors, five compilers, three architects, two superintendents and a few inspectors. Beside these departments, there is a Minister's Cabinet where official staff business, documents, accounts, textbooks, buildings, school hygiene, and miscellaneous affairs are managed. Nearly all important officials of the Bureau, as in the other cabinets, used to be exclusively law students who passed only the examination for general higher civil service, having neither experience nor even interest in education. As a matter of fact, in Japan, law students have been all-mighty, monopolizing all managerial positions in all fields. This met with severe criticism by Ex-President Eliot during his visit to Japan. Since then it has been somewhat modified. At present, able and experienced college professors or high school directors are being appointed to their special lines in the Bureau. As advisers to the Minister there are (1) the Privy Council, (2) the Higher Educational Council and (3) an Adviser proper (Sanseikwan). The Privy Council is the highest advisory body to the Emperor and has the power of veto over the Bureau, while the Higher Educational Council is purely advisory. The Advisor (Sansei-kwan) is a nominal official who supervises the Bureau at large. The Minister's executive power is, moreover, partly regulated by the Parliaments. He too, as in the case of the French Minister of Education cannot enjoy much freedom in his administration.

3. National education begins in the sixth year, free, compulsory elementary school which is, after the American model, for both sexes of all classes. For those elementary school graduates who want a brief, vocational education, there are (a) two years' higher elementary schools, (b) apprentice schools, (c) continuation schools, and (d) primary industrial schools. Secondary education includes (a) secondary industrial schools for boys or girls, (b) normal schools for boys or girls, (c) girls' high schools, (d) boys' high schools. There is seldom co-education beyond the elementary schools. The secondary schools legally admit the elementary school graduates, but since there are not enough of these schools, difficult competitive entrance examinations are given, admitting ten to sixty per cent of the applicants. The situation is worse in the colleges and universities. Higher education might be divided into (1) university preparatory colleges, and (2) vocational colleges. Both admit upon competitive examination high school graduates, but only industrial colleges, which are a small fraction of the whole, are open to graduates of secondary vocational schools.

4. Private schools of Japan are in a unique position owing to the monarchical form of government. In Japan the government monopolizes and centralizes every activity in the hands of the Emperor. The private schools are not privileged like the government school though they are subject to severe supervision and rigid uniformity. The fact that there is no private contribution to education in Japan makes this situation still worse, and they are always poorly equipped. So their students consist

of unsuccessful applicants eliminated from the competitive examination of the government schools. Their standards are so low that they are classified by the Bureau as "special schools."

5. Female education in Japan is also peculiar. It originated in the insignificant role of women in public life and even in the household. Female education may be characterized in that there are (a) less kinds and grades of schools, (b) poorer support and equipment, (c) flexible curriculum, (d) lower standard and (e) more strict discipline.

The following table indicates the number of schools, teachers, students, and graduates:-

The Bureau of Education--Report--p. 46--1916

(A)	No. of schools				No. of teachers			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	Total	(1)	(2)	(3)	Total
1.Elementary schools	4	25457	154	25615	81	156488	716	157285
2.Blind and dumb schools	2	4	57	63	43	52	296	391
3.Secondary normal "		86		86		1623		1623
4.Higher " "	2			2	126			126
5.Higher normal for girls	2			2	96			96
6.Teacher training	2			2	26			26
7.Boys' high schools	2	242	74	318	46	4877	1353	6276
8.Girls' " "	2	259	69	330	44	3050	1024	4118
9.University prepara- tory colleges	8			8	358			358
10.Universities	4			4	815			815
11.Special schools	8	5	54	67	276	134	1581	1991

The Bureau of Education--Report--p. 46-- 1916-Continued

(A)

	No. of schools				No. of teachers			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	Total	(1)	(2)	(3)	Total
12.Special technical schools	15	2	2	19	547	48	78	673
13.Secondary and primary technical schools	1	496	36	531	4124	515		4639
14.Technical continuation schools	4	7702	308	8014	1558	807		2365
15.Technical teacher training schools	3			3				
16.Sericultural	2			2	48			48
17.Miscellaneous	1108	1244	2352		899	6734		7633
Total	61	35359	1998	37418	2506	172853	13104	188463

N. B. --(1) State government schools.

(2) Prefecture or sub-prefecture schools.

(3) Private schools.

	No. of students				No. of graduates			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	Total	(1)	(2)	(3)	Total
1.	2433	6066450	26872	7095755	390	1144507	3316	1148211
2.	483	538	1818	2789	47	69	198	364
3.		27928				10806		10806
4.	1077			1077	246			246
5.	689			689	141			141
6.	166			166	26			26
7.	704	104069	27173	131946	129	15290	4211	19630

The Bureau of Education--Report--p. 46--1916-Continued

(A)

	No. of students				No. of graduates			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	Total	(1)	(2)	(3)	Total
8.	813	65438	17036	83287	160	14639	3663	18462
9.	6359			6359	1786			1786
10.	9572			9572	1855			1855
11.	3966	1785	24358	30109	766	317	3490	4573
12.	6055	397	647	7098	1567	103	115	1785
13.	208	71184	9530	80922	54	18078	1933	20065
14.	582	371171	13230	384983	576	124168	4116	128858
15.	173			173	28			28
16.	338			338	178			178
17.		46006	108422	154428		9963	36843	46806
Total	33568	7754966	229085	8017619	7997	1337940	57883	1403820

High Schools

1. The history of the Japanese high school is the thermometer of the influence of foreign countries on her civilization. The first high school was established in 1872 after the model of the French lycée with its academic and class spirit. It was unpopular, and in 1879 there was substituted for it at the suggestion of Dr. David Murry, an American adviser to the Minister (1875-1879), the democratic highly socialized American type of high school with its curriculum differentiation. But after the epoch-making war between Japan and China in 1894-1895, the secondary school came to the front, and in 1899 the high school of to-day, without the vocational subjects, came into existence.

2. Japan, at present, has the dual system in her secondary education like Germany, France, and England, having the purely vocational secondary schools. The Imperial Ordinance defines the high school as the institution where a liberal education higher than the elementary grades is offered, and "it is really complete in itself and does not necessarily send its pupils to the university or vocational colleges." ¹ From this unique feature, its position in the whole educational system corresponds to the French lycée or the colleges. But it depends upon the primary school as a source of supply, for it has not its own elementary classes as the lycée, or the German gymnasium.

1. Farrington--French Secondary Schools--p. 88.

In Japan, moreover, the distinction between the high school and the elementary school is not drawn, as in France or Germany, "along purely social lines,"² but rests solely upon a chronological basis. As a matter of fact the relative expenses of the Japanese high school student are not so large as the lycée, the gymnasium, or the English public school. So it includes the boys of all classes and vocations, and no class idea exists."³ The following table shows the kinds of vocation of the high school boys' parents:-

Occupation of Boys' Parents

(Japan Year Book--1915)

1. Farmers -----29% (in Japan farmers are not rich)
2. Manufacturers-----30%
3. Trades-----21%
4. Others-----20% (includes professions)

From the relation of the high school to the elementary school and its democratic spirit, the Japanese high school must be compared with the American. It is not, however, a free school. It is not so common in small towns as in this country. In this point the Japanese high school again resembles the lycée or the gymnasium. Though the Imperial Ordinance, as stated above, defines the high school as "complete in itself" and not preparatory to the universities and the vocational colleges, it is in actual practice, nearly as much a "classical preparatory school" as the German gym-

2. Farrington--French Secondary Schools--p.87.
 3. Kikuchi--New Education in Japan--p.75.

⁴
nasium. For all roads to the learned professions and to the higher posts in the civil and military service lead out from this school. Historically, it is the centre and strength of the Japanese school system: and while schools of a different nature have been, after the Japan-China War, established with a view to modern economic needs, popular prejudice is so strong that only graduates of the high school are regarded as cultured. Its important position in (The following table tells the subsequent careers of the high school graduates)

Graduates and Subsequent Careers

(Japan Year Book--1915)

1. University preparatory colleges----	1206
2. Vocational colleges-----	4470
3. Military or naval colleges or volunteer service-----	789
4. Teachers-----	1707 (some fraction are making money and preparing for the college en- trance exam.)
5. Government service-----	399
6. Other business-----	2330
7. Unknown-----	6497 (the majority are preparing for the college en- trance exam.)
8. Died-----	<u>109</u>
Total-----	17507

the whole system, therefore, corresponds practically to the German gymnasium. The Japanese high school is a strange mixture, owing to the fact that its genesis has resulted from the three transitional stages of influence which we mentioned above. Such a strange mixture, however, you may find in many places of modern Japanese life, in politics, in morals, in customs. And you may easily trace back a certain trait to the American, French, English, or German civilization. Be that as it may, the Japanese high school has such a prestige that aspiring youth and their parents believe that high school education is a necessary condition for their advancement in life, and the applicants flock to the high school without due consideration for their ability or means of support. As for its administration, it is regulated with extreme uniformity and standardization by the Bureau of Education, just as is the lycée or the gymnasium. Its expenditures, equipment, teaching force, curriculum, types of teaching, discipline, internal government, students' activities, etc. are quite similar. No system, in fact, is so conducive to curbing individuality, and to manufacturing obedient automatons. A boy is seized and carefully secluded from the haphazard influences of life, he is constantly subjected to a powerful but unseen moral and intellectual pressure; the constituents of the atmosphere he breathes are gradually altered, the oxygen is replaced by carbonic acid until the necessary comatose state is reached, and he is returned to be no longer a man but a machine, an automaton prepared to go anywhere and do anything at the superiors orders. There is no school in the world so effective in suppressing individuality.

CHAPTER II

FINANCE (1913--14)

In the fiscal year of 1913--1914, the budget of the national government was 491, 769, 850 yen and the Bureau of Education, whose expenditure was the lowest in the cabinet, spent 10,586,212 yen for the Bureau proper, colleges, universities, and other institutions. The expenditure of the local education was 77,960,463 yen. The income derived from the (a) educational stock fund of 4,426, 394 yen (b) special fund for teachers-- 5, 667, 317 yen (c) fund for teacher promotion 337, 730 yen (d) fund for encouraging local education 500,000 yen--chiefly paid by the local government. The expenditure of high schools was 4,919,491 yen, ranking first in the local education. There have been available, from (a) school property 18,219,020 yen, and (b) school stock property, 386,618 yen. In the items of high school expenditure, the teachers' salaries (2,600,478 yen) occupy one half of the total, and the items for school maintenance the other half. In the column of the actual income, 22,600,478 yen for that year, the tuition fee -- 2,147,306 yen--reaches more than 90% of the total. The voluntary contributions in the same column do not mean private individuals' endowments to education, but the contributions made by some local civic governments to the state. For we had no such custom as in America or Europe until the record-breaking contribution of 1,050,000 yen by the "copper prince," Mr. I. Furukawa in 1907. Since then, however, this custom seems to be gaining ground in Japan. In the later year, Mr. S. Yasukawa, the coal magnate, offered 3,300,00 yen, and Mr. K. Kodera, M. P., con-

tributed 200,000 yen. The taxes and assessments of the national or local government, are very heavy when their earning power is considered. This is caused by the enormous war taxes in Japan, resulting from the wars with China and Russia, and the national debts of 2,584,122, still outstanding. After it had found every taxable source, of late years the government has been monopolizing industries and other utilities in order to raise funds. Its policy and practice of monopoly are certainly unique, compared with the situation found in such a democratic country as the United States.

As one of the results of its poor financial situation in education, Japan is now confronting the grave danger of the shortage of schools. There is an overflow of applicants, even in the compulsory education of elementary grade, creating a contradictory situation. Any elementary school contains its maximum capacity of pupils, the size of class reaching more than 50. The higher the grade of school, the greater the overflow of applicants, and beyond elementary education, there is always a hard competitive examination. Often the failure of a student in the competition so shakes his courage and initiative that it results in moral degradation or even suicide. Another result is the poor equipment and facilities, which in the case of high school means the lack of laboratory work in science study. Owing to the scarcity of money, there is no scholarship fund, the pupils in the elementary and secondary schools must do the "school cleaning" and the teachers receive very small salaries and there are practically no pensions.

The following tables indicate the various kinds of expenditures in education:-

Expenditure of Department of Education

(Bureau's Report in 1916- P. 38.)

I Ordinary expenditure

1	Department proper-----	524,882 yen
2	Earthquake investigation-----	17,146
3	Geodetic committee-----	8,055
4	Central Meteorological observatory-----	74,459
5	Special observatory for latitude-----	8,571
6	Sericultural investigation-----	94,666
7	Examination for medical practice-----	81,286
8	Imperial universities and others-----	5,660,170
9	Salaries for prefecture normals-----	122,035
10	Grant for general education-----	2,500,000
11	Encouragement fund for technical education---	352,355
12	Aid to the preservation of old temples, 'shrines	149,999
13	Other expenses-----	3,356

	Total	9,595,978 yen

II Extraordinary expenditure

Total----- 989,234

10,586,212

Educational Fund --(The Bureau's Report in 1916)

Law & Imperial Ordinance--Educational Stock Fund.

Statistics--Value of Educational Fund--(1913--1916)

Loans to cities	114,263,320
towns	498,789,150
villages	1,511,510,885
town or village corporations	11,867,501
Town or village school corporations	10,000,000
Total	2,146,430,916
Government bonds	114,651,590
" "	122,550,000
Deposits	2,165,311,671
Grand total	4,426,394,177
Face value	

Financial Expenditure of Public Schools

The Bureau's Report in 1916 (P.321)

	1913--1914	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total
Elementary schools		46,903,402	9,198,710	56,102,112
Normal	"	3,642,777	466,880	4,109,657
Middle	"	4,514,022	405,469	4,919,491
Girls H		2,183,770	650,632	2,834,402
Special schools		867,314	22,231	889,545
Technical	"	5,049,296	655,588	5,704,884
Blind & dumb	"	39,488		39,488
Miscellaneous		238,327	11,254	249,581
Kindergartens		189,233	26,538	215,771
Libraries		207,288	25,186	232,472
Others		1,032,373	1,630,687	2,663,050
Grand Total		64,867,290	13,093,173	77,950,463

Middle School Expenditures P. 320 Report.

1913--1916

Items

Salaries of Directors, assistants Instructors	304,793 yens
Instructors & regular teachers	2,315,944
Other teachers	488,711
Dormitory Superintendents	47,807
Clerks	138,871
Grant for school dues	18,909
Travelling Expenses	94,118
Janitor, Ushers, servants.	285,443
Scholarships	115
Rent for ground & houses.	28,957
Expenses for Books, apparatus	157,913
School furniture	106,638
Articles of consumption	147,362
Buildings	394,401
Repairs	165,607
Other Expenses	- 223,902
Total	4,919,491
<hr/>	
Elementary teacher's house expenses & rents	387,689
Building expenses of school teacher's lodging houses	244,237
<hr/>	
Tuition fees	2,147,306
Voluntary contributions	36,550
Amount derived from school stocks property	17,325
Miscellaneous	63,394

Total 2,264,575

Those included in the stock funds, practice fund
or reserve fund. 103,110

Report 1916 P 327

Value of Public School Property 1913-1916

Middle School

Area of school grounds-----	25,513,133	-----	1,948,268
Landed property belonging to schools-----	10,300,712	-----	127,474
Total-----	35,813,845	-----	336,715
Class Room----	3,624,822		100,648
Buildings			
Other Room----	2,820,853	-----	236,057

Total	----	6,445,685	----- 336,715

Value of school grounds -----	57,198,801	-----	3,316,371
Landed property belonging to school -----	2,555,168	-----	136,977
Buildings-----	155,263,661	-----	10,697,373
Books-----	9,998,002	-----	918,090
Apparatus & Specimens-----	14,067,663	-----	1,673,730
Furniture -----	18,547,023	-----	1,476,489

Total	----	257,620,318	18,219,020

SCHOOL STOCK PROPERTY

Amount of money-----	15,992,169	-----	587,780
Area	125,359,739t	-----	85,907 t

Grounds

	Value-----	6,636,080 y	-----	3,195
	Area-----	22,273 t	-----	
Buildings	Value-----	383,992 y	-----	1,736
	Value of other property-----	119,197	-----	4,931
Total	-----	7,384,845	-----	

Reserve fund formed in accordance

with the general Regulations for

the Local Educational affairs:- 2,818,260 y ----- 386,618

CHAPTER III

SUPERVISION

The Japanese high schools are supervised by three different schemes of control. In the central Bureau of Education, there are five superintendents who are assigned respectively to five "inspection districts" of the state by the minister. Each district consists of nine prefectures, including those educational institutions of various kinds beyond the elementary grade. Each superintendent, therefore, has to supervise an enormous number of schools. There is no written regulation about the qualifications of these highest officials, but they used to be either graduates of the Imperial Universities or the Higher Normal Schools and were required to have some experience in teaching, to be recognized their abilities, and to be males. They are appointed by the Emperor on the recommendation of the minister for an indefinite term. Their official rank and pay, compared with other civil officials, are very high. They have their offices in the central Bureau of Education, and somewhat indirectly supervise the high schools through the local superintendents of the prefectural governments. As to the frequency of visits to the assigned section, there is no definite rule, but generally these occur twice a year. How often this central official inspects a certain one school, there are no statistics available.

In order to make an equal number of visits to each school, the schedule of visits is arranged with the local superintendent who, without fail, accompanies and makes explanations about high schools during his trip. Since there is but one superintendent to

visit a great number of schools per year, it is quite natural that his inspection is of very general nature. He pays the most attention to (a) the teacher's qualifications and methods of teaching, (b) standards of scholarship, and (c) general discipline. He generally spends half a day at each school, and about ten or fifteen minutes inspecting each teacher. He makes, upon his return, his report to the minister in verbal or written form, but his inspection may or may not be followed by recommendations. His criticism is always made to the school director, never to the teachers themselves, for there is such a wide difference of rank between them, that it can be bridged only by the director. He is like a despot to the teachers.

This is but one of the products of autocracy. There is another kind of supervision consisting of five or six inspectors appointed by the Minister for the term of one year. They are professors in the local colleges or universities, specialists in specific fields. Each of them is temporarily ordered, generally twice a year, by the minister, to inspect a certain locality which is near to the school where he is teaching. The inspectors of this type are fairly equally located in the representative districts of the state. There is no fixed rule about the frequency of visit to a certain locality or to a school. But this kind of inspection is being carried on very intensively, and the criticisms or recommendations from these specialists are always constructive. Besides, their attitude to the teachers is somewhat better than that of the government

superintendents. Though this is a rather new feature of the school system, it seems to be very efficient and helpful.

There is one more kind of supervision which is of a quite local nature. In the local prefectural government, as stated in Chapter III, one of the four departments is devoted to education, in which are found one superintendent and a few "prefectural inspectors." The latter inspect only those schools maintained by the sub-prefectures, while the former controls the education in his jurisdiction just as does the government superintendent for his. His usual qualifications nowadays are that he must be a law student, educated in the Imperial University, and must have passed the very difficult examination for higher civil service. It is a tradition, as we described in Chapter II, that a law student is always glorified with the halo of administrative ability. He generally has neither experience nor even interest in education, and in most cases he is only temporarily in his place as a stepping stone to some higher government positions. As a matter of fact, it is generally the case that if he displays executive ability, he is soon shifted to the civil or Police Departments of other prefectures, and some inexperienced official fresh from the civil examination fills the vacancy. So in any local government, you will find that the superintendent is likely to be the most incompetent and incapable among the five department heads, and he is usually trained and shaped, during his tenure, into a great educator by those prefecture inspectors or secondary school directors who are under his control. A sarcastic high school director, once called the education department of the prefecture government "the training

school for higher civil officials." Be as it may, being armed with his rank and veto, he sits on the throne of his office, and seldom visits the schools under his scepter. Instead, he calls those directors to his castle, and makes them report about the conditions. If he favors a locality by a visit, it is not more than twice a year, in spring and autumn. It may be, however, that it is better not to have frequent visits, for he cannot see anything except the school house and crowds. He has the same "oracularism, and solemnity and dignity of an owl," as the government superintends. As mentioned before, the Bureau's supervision would be, owing to the small number of officials, naturally of a general nature, while the inspection by the college professors is limited to a certain high school subject, so the Bureau of Education necessarily expects the local superintendent to conduct a very intensive supervision in the high school education. According to the Bureau's regulations he is to inspect (a) General administration, (b) finance and equipment, (c) curriculum, (d) methods of teaching, (e) teachers's qualification, (f) examinations, (g) standards, (h) textbooks, (i) discipline, (j) hygiene, etc. But what can the superintendent, as such, do? If he has (a) executive ability, he lacks the other two vital qualities, (b) capacity for organization, and (c) supervision as a superintendent. It is, in fact, quite logical that his supervision is of so general a nature that any layman can do. There is no scientific measurement nor constructive criticism. And he follows the well-beaten path, enforcing a uniformity, controlling everything by rules and regulations from his official chair.

As for professional education for supervising officials in service, there are two kinds--the "lecture course" for (a) the prefecture inspectors, and (b) the sub-prefecture inspectors. Both of them are conducted by the Bureau of Education, twice a year on separate dates, in the capital, calling out one inspector (by turns) from every prefecture. It is usually held for three weeks. Lectures are given by the specialists in the colleges and universities in education, psychology, economics and law. Upon their return to their respective prefectures, they are required to make reports to their local governments. As there is no summer school in Japan, this is an unusual chance to stimulate and develop their professional knowledge. For the Japanese, as a rule, discontinue the reading habit as soon as they finish their education. A certain eminent educator mentioned as the causes (1) overwork during school life, (2) too severe discipline and supervision, (3) poor types of teaching, (4) high price of all publications, and (5) lack of libraries. When the prefectural and sub-prefectural inspectors are compared with the prefecture superintendent, the former are certainly better in their professional spirit and qualifications, while there is no opportunity to educate and improve the latter which may be called the cornerstone of her supervising machinery.

The high school teacher's attitude toward this prefecture superintendent is very indifferent, and generally they do not respect him, for they know his incompetency as their leader and adviser. But they are somewhat afraid of him, as he has tyrannical power to demote or promote them.

In closing this chapter, we may add one more point. Their method of inspection, as a whole, is still in the primitive stage of guess work or common sense judgment. No scientific measurements, nor even any tentative standards, are applied. It is indeed unique that none of these three kinds of superintendents ever reports the results of the inspection to the public.

The following table shows the health conditions of the high school boys:-

HIGH SCHOOL BOYS

1913-1916 (The Bureau's Report-1916 P. 252.)

No. of students examined----119,345

(A) General Health	%	(B) Special Column	%
1 Strong-----	51.87	1 Normal	92.50
2 Medium-----	43.93	2 Curved left	2.04
3 Weak-----	4.20	3 right	.98
		4 forward	.25
		5 backward	4.29

(C) Eye

(I) Both eyes

1 Normal-----	83.61
2 Long sighted-----	.08
3 Short " -----	11.99
4 Others-----	.10

(II) Left eye

1	Normal	-----	2.11
2	Long sighted	----	.05
3	Short	----	1.93
4	Others	-----	.09

(III) Right eye

1	Normal	-----	1.99
2	Long sighted	----	.04
3	Short	----	2.06
4	Others	-----	.10

PERCENTAGE OF CAUSES OF ILLNESS

1913-1914 (The Bureau's Report 1916-250)

High School Boys

No. of pupils examined	-----	119,345
Trachoma	-----	9.42%
Ophthalmic diseases		
Others	-----	3.72
Defective power of hearing	-----	1.48
Ear diseases	-----	1.50
Decayed teeth	-----	39.18
Disease of throat	-----	2.02
Disease of nose	-----	0.79

Confectious skin diseases-----0.57

CHAPTER IV

TEACHING FORCE

1. The history of Japan may be divided in four periods.

The 1st period. (the 7th to the close of 12th century.)

In the beginning of the 8th century, after the introduction of Chinese civilization, with its Buddhism, Japan underwent many radical political reforms. Among other things, there was established in the capital a government university after the Chinese model. The subjects taught were (a) classics; (b) law; (c) literature; (d) music; (e) calligraphy; (f) mathematics. The president and the professors were Buddhist priests who had studied in China as government scholars. The students were exclusively of the higher official classes and came from the local government academies. The professors in the central as well as the local schools were men of rare ability and character, and enjoyed the highest official rank and social standing. This plan, however, was too radical and too advanced for Japan's stage of civilization, at this time, and this situation had a brief existence.

The 2nd period. (12th to 16th century)

Japan is not an exception in the fact that her education for the masses originated in the Buddhist temples, just as the church¹ initiated education in Europe. In Japan, however, the

¹ Learned: Oberlehrer. P. 3.

schooling neither was organized as the means of perpetuating² the Buddhist doctrines and traditions, nor as an indispensable activity, as in Europe. For only a small number of temples whose priests were cultured, had schools. In the earliest state of social evolution, learning is the privilege of the leisure class.

During this period, Japan was in a state of "militant³ feudalism," and the ruling class was constantly engaging in the warfare, while the industrial class was busy supporting the other classes. So it was only the priest class that could enjoy leisure. Those priests, without the necessity of making a living studied not only Buddhism, but also the Chinese literature, which includes politics, economics, history, mathematics, classics, and even military art and management. Their students were of two classes, (1) the military, and (2) the industrial, and each learned its own essential subjects. The priests were generally the tutors and advisers to the lords of the local feudal districts in the civil as well as in the military administration. Though not solely^{a.s} because they were the teaching profession, they were generally treated something like "the guest of honor to the lords" and their social standing was extremely high. It is perhaps unique that in Japan education was not so much overshadowed by its parent institution as in Europe, and it was materially secularized at the very beginning.

2 Ibid

3 Nitobe: The Japanese Nation. P. 47.

The 3rd period. (the 16th to the 18th centuries.)

This period is politically characterized as peaceful feudalism, when the Tokugawa Shogunate ruled over Japan as de facto sovereign, making the Emperor de jure. It had been the hereditary policy of the successive Shoguns that in order to enjoy the ruling position permanently they schemed and tried hard to make the military class forget warfare by the extreme encouragement of art and literature. In the early part of this period, the 5th Shogun established a magnificent academy, the "Sho-Hei-School" and appointed the renowned scholar, Hon. K. Hagashi, director. His official rank was the highest, with an enormous salary, and he was treated as a "special guest" of the ruler. He was also the consultant or adviser to the Shogun in the civil as well as in the military administration, and he was really the leader of the nation.

This directorship later was made hereditary in a certain celebrated family, the Hagashis. The subjects taught in the academy were Chinese philosophy, morals, politics, and literature. The teachings was done through lectures. The students were exclusively from the military class, and the ruler of ten paid the tribute to the school. Such a ruler's enthusiasm and example were soon imitated by the three hundred local feudal lords under the Shoguns scepter and before long there was the same type of school everywhere.

The central and local academy directors legally belonged to the military class, and this honorable position was hereditary to the male heir. When there was no son, or if the son was not

capable, a promising student was adopted in order to maintain the honor and profession of the family. In the central and local academies, besides the director, there were a few unpaid assistants temporarily appointed by the Shogun on the director's recommendation, and all the teaching force belonged to the military class. Thus, the size of teaching population was very small, being limited to a favored few. But they were really the exceptional few, with rare ability, character, and learning. The character of the teacher was above all the most important factor in his selection and survives today. Their professional spirit, their divine ideals, and their white-heat enthusiasm were certainly remarkable; they "feared nobody but God." The teaching profession in Japan for the first time in her history came into existence on a high plane.

In the middle part of this 3rd period, the famous scholar, S. Fujiwara opened in the capital a private school for the military class and attracted great numbers of students from all over the realm. This epoch-making and successful trial of a public institution encouraged the masters of art and literature to establish private schools in the large cities. During this second period, on the other hand, there still existed this second period, on the other hand, there still existed many temple schools only for the industrial class, taking an insignificant role in education. This 3rd period may be characterized as "the period¹ of idealism" with a fixed means of realization or assimilation of Chinese culture and resembles a great deal the new humanist move-

¹ Learned: The Oberlehrer, P. 120

ment of Germany in 1750-1871.

The 4th period.- (The Restoration in 18680 to the present.)

Japan met her crisis in 1868 when the Tokugawa Shogunate came to his downfall, and the de jure Emperor again became de facto sovereign. Occidental civilization was introduced and served to drive out the old traditional civilization, and all educational institutions were abolished. With the new democratic idea, education for all was advocated, and schools of various kinds and grades were established. To meet the enormous demand for the teaching profession, many government students were sent abroad to study special lines and a great number of foreign professors were employed, and numerous teacher training institutions came into sudden existence. In order to meet the demand for a large teaching population, the standard of the teaching requirements was naturally lowered. From the profound influence of the Chinese philosophy, the masters of the "good old days" always looked upon material well-being as a matter of subsidiary concern, and with the high ideal they literally sacrificed their lives for the culture of the students, and that they were always surrounded with a divine and superhuman halo is quite characteristic. The displacement of the venerable teachers of the old system with younger teachers devoid of professional spirit, preparation, and the virtues of the old days, have undermined the respectful relationship that formerly existed between masters and students. Education is too often regarded nowadays as a thing of fees and salaries, and sadly lacks the personal element. This account for "weak

discipline¹ " and the refractory prosperity of students, especially those of high schools in which very often boys strike, upon the alleged grounds of (a) incompetence of their directors or teachers, or (b) a demand for more freedom. This was a common occurrence until about ten years ago. Now it has been gradually lessening with (a) the better professional preparation of teachers, (b) better character, and (c) "positive discipline"². Japan has already passed the radical transitional period in all her social activities, and there is now a marked tendency to study the occidental civilization fundamentally with profound insight and keen criticism, in order to eliminate the medieval institutions, and bring the two civilizations, the Oriental and the Occidental, into the better harmony. After the Russo-Japanese War, Japan realized the importance of the teaching population for her future expansion, and as a result, their social standing and the material rewards, such as the salaries and pensions, have been gradually increased. If this tendency continue, the day will certainly come when the new masters, equipped with modern methods and means, will lead the nation as did the old masters fifty years ago.

2. Before concluding the history of the teaching population, let us describe a few of its unique traits, peculiar to the profession and handed down from the preceding feudal age. The teachers are certainly of a better moral character than the members of any other profession. They rather look down upon material

1 Sach: American Secondary Schools. P. 63

2 Sach: American Secondary Schools. P. 65

well-being, and the bribe is unknown to them. They do not migrate from place to place to get better pay as do those in other vocations. If they are fairly well paid, they serve willingly in the same school ten or twenty years, teaching and guiding with fatherly love. As a matter of fact, those teachers who constitute the backbone of each school are always found to have been ten or fifteen years in continuous service. They are very indifferent in their mode of life, even if they can afford luxuries. If you go to good society and find intelligent people putting on the sack^{Co} ~~was~~ faded and old fashioned, they belong, nine times out of ten, to the teaching profession. In the most extreme cases, they look like hermits, caring but little for the material world. "What¹ busied them counted no longer in the world without; what counted without, that was hardly as yet their business." This type of man you can easily find among those old teachers of the classics or literature who were educated in the feudal age. In Japan there still survives a peculiar tradition which separates the priest and the teacher from the other professions, and puts them above and beyond the cares of the world. For instance, the teacher unless a specialist, neither can talk about politics nor attend political meetings, except those in the government institution: the teachers are not legally civil officials, although the same privileges and treatment are given them. As in Germany, there is no danger or prospect of women teachers above elementary education, except in the girls' schools. No

1 Learned: The Oberlehrer, P. 30

nation has more feministic traits in her activities than America, and may be called, as by Bismarck, "the feminine nation."

3. The kinds of officials of the typical high school consist of (a) director, (b) sub-director, (c) students' supervisor, (d) teaching staff, (e) dormitory supervisor, (f) purser, (g) clerks, (h) school doctor. The number of school officials is determined by the size of the school, which is by the Bureau's regulation limited from --- a minimum of 400, and a maximum of 600 boys. But in practice the schools in the great cities often have above 800. In any case, the total number is divided into five grades from the first grade to the fifth, each having a few parallel classes. The maximum size of a class is 50, but seldom is over 40. The size of the faculty is determined by the official regulation of "2 teachers to each class for the first five classes, and 1.5 for each additional class. From their official ranking they belong to (1) "Sonin" and (2) "Hannin," which also indicate the difference in the salary and other official privileges. (1) "Sonin" literally means the appointment by a certain executive, with the Emperor's approval. According to the regular official form, the high school teachers in the "Sonin" class are first appointed by the prefecture governor and then approved by the Emperor. "Hannin" means a certain official's own appointment, and in the case of those high school teachers in the "Hannin" class, they are appointed by the prefecture governor. So much for the official form of appointment: the real practice is somewhat different. In most cases, the director of the high school is selected by (a) the

prefecture superintendent, (b) the governor, (c) or by both, in unofficial consultation with the Bureau of Education from many promising candidates. Then the Bureau of Education collects the available information concerning to the candidates character, academic and professional preparation, former career, new salary, and makes a very careful and detailed examination. If the central Bureau approve him, then the formal appointment follows; if not, the local government must make further considerations and another selection. The examination in the Bureau of Education is very strict and careful, for, except in the great cities, the high school director is really the leader not only of learning, but also of any social activity in the locality, and his influence is certainly remarkable. In Japan, the local atmosphere or spirit toward politics, economics, art, and education is so different that the Bureau must appoint a certain type of high school director in order to insure that the local demand will be met. This noticeable local difference originated in the Shogunate feudalism of three hundred years ago, and is at present losing ground owing to the rigid and uniform administration of the Emperor. The school strikes referred to above often occurred from lack of understanding between the high school director and the local residents. The same kind of failures were frequently experienced for the prefecture governor and other civil officials. There are, however, a dozen local high schools which are widely known for their unorganized condition and are "black marked" on the Bureau's records as the "strike-zones." For those dangerous zones it is very hard to appoint the proper directors, so the Bureau itself often makes

a careful selection and appointment. In any case, as for the selection and appointment in the central Bureau, the government superintendents play the chief role. The sub-director and other members of the teaching staff are selected by the director himself, from (a) personal application to the director, and (b) the official list of candidates from the prefecture government. The official list is prepared every year by the Bureau with the would-be graduates of the two Teacher Training Institutes and the two Higher Normal Schools. This privilege is given only to the four teacher-training schools and withheld from any of the rest. Those graduates of the universities, colleges, and others who are legally entitled to become teachers must apply to the director for the position. The official list always guarantees the qualifications of the nominee, while the private applicants are either good or bad. Naturally those on the list are in a very favorable position. For the new graduates the Bureau of Education practically, though not legally, insures their employment, and takes every means to place each in a suitable and satisfactory position. As for teacher selection, each high school director is now enjoying entire freedom and power.

Nowadays there are every year hundreds and thousands of what Bismarck called "educational proletariat" coming from the various universities and colleges. Some of these are searching for teaching positions, and the competition for a desirable position is very strong.

4. As for the basis of selection, it must differ to some extent according to the situations under which the selection is made.

But generally speaking, for the high school director, (1) moral traits are considered the first and most vital factor; then comes (2) administrative ability, and (3) academic or professional qualifications. In the case of other members of the teaching corps (1) moral character comes first, then (2) intellectual equipment, and (3) executive ability. In either case, moral factors are more emphasized ^athen they are here, and health is sadly neglected, ¹especially health which recently had the severe criticism ²of Dr. T. Mishima, Specialist in School Hygiene.

The school administrator is now paying more attention to ³this qualification. The teacher's voice and general appearance also are not considered at all. For the former, there are many miserable examples among the teachers of foreign languages. For the latter, they certainly need more precaution for the teacher's dignity and influence toward the students. It is one of the unique Oriental traits that a man is quite indifferent to his outside appearance and he firmly believes that ^tis is a woman's business. You can find a dozen of this type of Cynic philosophers in any high school. This does not necessarily mean the lower standard of civilization more ^{less}than vulgarity or lack of etiquette, but from "the type of civilization which is originated," as Prof. Thomas says, "in the direction of attention." Two more factors may be added as the basis of selection, which ^{iv}is some cases are

1 The 16th Year Book of the National Society of Education part II,
P. 37.

2 Dr. T. Mishima, School Hygiene P. 75.

3 The 14th Year Book of the National Society of Education--
Vol. II, PP. 37, 56, 61.

very influential. Those are "personal whim" and "pool." There are two kinds in "pool," namely, (a) the "blood pool" and the "school pool." The blood pool may be the common weak point among all human communities, but it seems to be stronger in Japan than it is here, and can be found in those vocations where no official regulation of qualifications for the appointment exists. It is a bad policy prevalent in Japan that some ambitious young men often try to get the blood pool through matrimony in order to secure social attainment. This situation is still worse in China. The "school pool," however, is more general and stronger than the other in the case of teacher appointment. As it is, the high school education the graduates of the universities and the higher normal schools have been secretly fighting for supremacy, because their powers in that field are balanced, while those from other sources are in an insignificant situation. The administration difficulties for the prefecture superintendent or the high school director result chiefly from this struggle, and even the school strikes referred to, often are traced back to this origin.

5. For the certification of teachers there is a standing committee which consists of permanent and temporary members, appointed by the cabinet on the Minister's recommendation. They are (a) university presidents, (b) university or college professors, and (c) higher officials of the Bureau. The temporary members are the examiners for "teacher certificate examination," and belong to the committee only during a short period before and after the examination. About the size, tenure, or qualifications of the committee there is no definite regulation, but the examiners

are all specialists in the subjects in which the examination is conducted and certificates issued. So they are very carefully selected by the Bureau, which picks from all the government institutions the best man in each subject.

There are two ranks of the certificate of secondary education. The first rank includes certificates for (a) the boy's high school, (b) the boy's or girl's normal school, and (c) the boy's industrial school; while the second rank includes (1) the girls high school, and (2) the girls industrial school. The first rank certificates in the same rank are again classified by the kind of school, and separately issued, though not legally, a certificate for a kind of school in a certain rank is sometimes used for another kind of school in the same rank in practice. To get a certificate for any special subject, it is required to pass the examination for pedagogy and psychology as well. The subject for which the certificates are issued included all those of secondary education. The examination is conducted once every year by the certificate committee, and is divided into the preliminary and the final. The preliminary examination is a written examination in which morals, education, Japanese language and Chinese literature (not separately), English, French, German, history--(a) Japanese, (b) oriental, (c) Occidental, (separately), geography, mathematics--(a) arithmetic, (b) algebra, (c) geometry, (d) trigonometry, (e) analytical geometry, (f) calculus, physics and chemistry, natural science--(a) zoology and physiology (b) botany (c) minerals, law and economics, writing, drawing-- (a) pencil (b) brush, household science and sewing, gymnastics, music, book-

keeping, agriculture, commerce, manual arts, is given in each prefecture government supervised by the prefecture superintendent. The final examination is given in the central Bureau of Education by the examiners themselves in the form of an oral quiz. The qualifications for the candidate for the examination are rather low and flexible, owing to the notion that this examination is the only channel to attain a higher teaching position for the unfavored group who missed the college education, and among whom there may be some promising men; that is, any one is eligible who is (a) more than 21 years old, (b) who~~s~~ has had five years high school education or its equivalent. The standard of the preliminary examination, however, is so advanced as nearly to correspond to college graduation, in order to eliminate undesirable applicants from this enormous and heterogeneous group. The marking is very rigid and strict. Generally the great majority of the applicants are removed by the preliminary and only a small minority are entitled to the final examination. The standard of the final examination is often criticized because of its being so high that the average college graduate can hardly pass it. To this criticism, the examination committee replies that those applicants are qualified in a narrow field while these more privileged college graduates have an allround education; moreover there is some probability of passing undesirable applicants; so it is quite fair and square for these college graduates to raise the standard pretty high. Consequently high school teachers who passed the examination are generally better qualified in their special lines than those from the privileged colleges.

Teacher Certificate Examination: Subjects and No. passing
in 1913-1914--(1910 Report of the Bureau P. 76)

N. B. This examination includes preliminary and final.

<u>Subject</u>	Applicants	Passed	Subject	Applicants	Passed	
Morals	269	19	Jap Hist. & Oriental Hist.	189	9	
Pedagogies	307	27	Geography	113	16	
Jap lang & Chinese clas.	293	35	Arithmetic	113	0	
English	144	11	Algebra & Geometry	587	10	
German	2	0	Trigonometry	38	10	
French	1	0				
Occidental History	139	7	Analztical geometry	41	4	
			Differential & integral cal			
Physics & Chemistry	7	0	Commerce	65	8	
Physics	92	11	Manual Arts	46	9	
Chemistry	28	6				
<hr/>						
			TOTAL			
Zoology & physiology	80	30	Male	Passed	Female	Passed
Botany	137	10	3409	285	612	73
Mineral- ology	31	6				

Subject	Applicants	Passed	Subject	Applicants	Passed
Law & Econom.	50	9			
Hand- Writing	256	22			
Instrument drawing	63	7			
Pencil drawing	101	8			
Domestic science	157	22			
Sewing	353	37			
Gymnastice	94	7			
Music	14	2			
Bookkeeping	65	8			
Agriculture	218	11			

6. The final examination, as above mentioned is conducted by the certificate committee in the Bureau of Education. For each, five or six special examiners are assigned, and the examination is given to each candidate separately. Generally speaking those examiners who are authorities in their particular lines, (1) give an oral quiz of many questions, either general or particular, covering the field to test real attainment. If they are satisfied with the candidate's store of knowledge and his ability to handle the questions, then (2) they ask him to demonstrate a model lesson for a certain grade in a certain kind of school, and now the room for the examination is changed into a class room with gray-haired pupils. Those pupils are really harder to handle due to their

heterogeneity in ability and personal character. One asks a question too advanced for the grade while another asks one outside the subject. One is very alert in his lesson, while others are doing something mischievous. In that way they test again his practical knowledge in pedagogy and psychology, as well as his executive ability.

During this final examination one of the examiners is intensively observing the candidates' personality or character. He is, in most cases, a higher official or a superintendent of the Bureau. Once in a while there is a case in which the examiners are surprised with the rare ability and attainment of a candidate in his special line, and at one leap and bound appoint him to be a college professor on the examiner's highest recommendation.

The graduates of certain governmental universities and colleges are entitled to receive the certificate without this difficult examination, which is certainly a great privilege. But the certificate is issued only for the major subject. For instance, a university graduate from the chemistry department who has applied to the committee for the secondary teacher certificate, though he has, as his elective, three years' credit of English from his university preparatory college and one year's credit of English from his university, is given the certificate in chemistry only. For the boys high school subjects, the following government institutions are entitled to certification in each special field:--

No.	Names	No.	School Year
1	Imperial University	4	3 years college prep. 2 or 4 years advanced wk.
2	Higher normal school	2	4
3	Teacher training institute	2	3
4	Foreign language schools	1	3
5	Japanese language schools	2	4
6	Fine arts school	1	4
7	Musical academy	1	4

In Japan, as we described in Chapter II, the private schools are in a very unfavorable situation. For teacher certification, only a very few among a great many were recently given the privilege of exemption from the examination. But there are certain regulations, the final examination for candidates for teacher certification is supervised or examined by the certificate examiners of the Bureau, and the record of the final examination must be exceptionally good. In real practice, this regulation is enforced very rigidly and only a few of the best students can enjoy the privilege.

Those colleges are:--

Name	School Year	Subjects
1 Waseda University	4½	Morals, Japanese language, Chinese classics, English, history, geography,

Name	School Year	Subjects
2 Aogama Seminary (Mission school)		Law & economics. English

For the graduates of private colleges and universities in Europe or America there is no fixed rule, and each case is intensively investigated by the certificate committee. In most cases these graduates are not exempt.

7. In order to eliminate this uniform discrimination, some advocate giving the same examination to all the applicants for the certificate, and entirely abolishing the non-examination privilege. This seems to be quite reasonable, but in the present condition the private, so-called universities, are so poorly equipped, and of such a low standard, due to the poor students, that if the Bureau gave the same certificate examination to all the applicants, the graduates of the private institutions would probably make very inferior records compared with the government students, and would realize that the present regulation is better than the revised one. In order to give fair treatment to all the students, we must as we discussed in Chapter II, completely revolutionize the whole national system of education from its foundation, wiping out all privileges from the government institutions, taking away the traditional prejudice against the private schools. This very proposition was presented last year by Baron Kikuchi to the Bureau of Education and the Higher Educational Council, and later before the Privy Council. The leading politicians,

educators, and newspapers argued pro and con the "Kikuchi plan" and it is now before the public. A very egotistic opposition on the part of the would-be intelligent population of the government universities is in evidence and are now being made the laughing stock by the public.

The Percentage of the Examinations and Non-Examinations Certifications among the Normal and the High School Teachers.

The Bureau's Report--1916--P 273

Date	No. of applicants			Percentage		
	By exam	non-exam	total	By exam	non-exam	average
1913-16	4,021	463	4,464	8.90%	58.37%	16.81%

N.B. For some students of the privileged government schools the certificate committee refuses to confer the certificate.

The Phenomenal expansion of secondary education after the Russo-Japanese War caused a great demand for secondary teachers, and the Bureau established temporarily the eight teacher-training institutes besides the higher normal schools, meeting the demand to some extent. When the transitional period was over, the Bureau abolished six of the teacher-training institutes, and now two exist, waiting for the same fate. Nowadays there is still some pressing demand for qualified teachers in secondary schools, for from 1913 to 1916 about 1/6 of the secondary teachers were not certificated. Why do ^{not} the high schools require all members of the teaching force to hold certificates? Because this means a great increase in teachers' salaries, and at the present time, financial conditions, will not permit this increase. But this

is improving year after year, especially in the boys high schools, as the following table proves:--

Date	Total	No. of H. S. Teachers	Qualified	Not Qualified
1907	5,626		71.69%	28.31%
1909	5,845		75.26%	24.74%
1911	6,051		77.76%	22.24%

8. In educational circles, there is much discussion about the high school teachers' qualifications and the nature of the schools from which they came. The teachers from the government universities, generally speaking, have abundant knowledge in their special subjects. For they had, above a high school education, three years university-preparatory study and three or four years' advanced university work, probably corresponding to the two years' graduaage work here. But they sadly lack professional preparation, and often the professional interest or spirit as well. As it is, when they were graduated, few of them had the slightest idea of becoming high school teachers. Generally they first try to seek some promising position in business, or in the easy and snug government service. But nowadays there are hundreds and thousands of the so-called "educational proletariat," and no position is opened in those desirable fields. Thus after seeking such positions in vain, they come at last to the shpere of education. But here too, the higher positions in the Bureau or colleges and universities are already filled and, to their surprise the only place they can get in is the high school which they used to look down upon. But they must "work or die", so they "sneak into" the teach-

ing force only as a stepping stone. Three or four years pass so quickly during their "watchful waiting" for some other position, yet Fate still does not turn her wheel. Meanwhile they begin to feel a little interest in their profession. They are promoted. So at length they decide to remain permanently in their temporary vocation. Twenty years ago when there was a great demand for university men in any field or profession, there was seldom found a university man among the high school teachers, and it is only recently that university graduates have been drawn into the high school service. Naturally, at the start, they are certainly incompetent teachers, but later they may improve in proportion to their professional interest and ability. At present the university graduates form about 10% of the total number of high school teachers and the number is increasing every year. So some educational administrators advocate transferring the higher normal school in-to the Imperial University as the Teacher's College, while (2) others recommend requiring one years' professional preparation for the university graduates in the higher normal school before going into the position, but (3) no one proposes to establish the Teacher's College as a department of the university proper. No plan has as yet been adopted.

As to the professional spirit and general efficiency of the high school teacher, the graduate from the higher normal school is ranked, by the public, first among the teaching population. His art of teaching is really wonderful, his class management excellent, and he devotes himself to the students welfare, and he seems to be an ideal teacher from every point. This is, however,

quite natural when we consider his efficient preparation. Every year the school authorities order the prefecture governors all over Japan to send the best material available in each jurisdiction, assigning a certain number of students to each prefecture, in proportion to its school population. Each governor advertises that a certain number of candidates for the higher normal school is wanted. The qualifications for the applicant are (a) graduation from a normal or a high school with a scholarship record within the first one-third of the entire class (the range being about 100-150 students) during the first four years, and a graduate record within the first one-fourth, (b) good physical condition, without any undesirable hereditary or acquired disease and (c) sound character and good habits. When eligible applicants answer the call, they must choose their special lines in the future profession, such as "English" or "History" and they can make "the first choice" and "the second choice" if they so desire. Every year the qualified applicants far exceed the number wanted, which in the small local prefecture is three or four, and in the large prefecture, five or six. So they have a difficult competitive examination. Their records in this examination and in their five years' normal or high school work are sent to the higher normal school, where the special committee examines these two records and their choice in the subjects (such as "English" or "History") in their future profession. When the selection is made very carefully and intensively, they can get pupils fitted for each particular subject, and a special order is made to each prefecture governor to send them such and such applicants. When the order is received, the committee again examines

the candidates chiefly about their personality and physical conditions. If the candidate is satisfactory, he is accepted; if not, he is sent back to his prefecture. The relative number of new students for each high school subject is determined by the Bureau of Education and the higher normal school according to the changing market condition for secondary school teachers. So new students are seldom allowed to change their intended subjects after their admission to the school. The machinery for teacher production is divided into five "departments":--

1. Japanese literature and Chinese classics
2. English
3. Geography and history
4. Natural science
- 5 (a) Chemistry and physics, or (b) mathematics and physics.

In the first year, the selected candidates are given a general and fundamental training in their special subjects as well as in education and psychology. From the second to the fourth year, they specialize in their respective line, along with education and psychology. For experimentation there are (a) kindergartens, (b) elementary schools, and (c) high schools. Besides these, in order to promote the student's interest and knowledge, there are several semi-official societies such as (a) educational, (b) psychological, or (c) English, etc. The atmosphere of this school is decidedly different from any other. The remarkable professional spirit and the strong confidence in the future are important characteristics.

The students are certainly awakened in their attitude to-

ward the future, and are very hard workers, or else they are instantly expelled from the school because of the poor scholarship. The discipline is the most strict of all the government institutions. This is partly due to the fact that this is the only free school of the government in the sense that (a) no fees or tuition are charged, and (b) living expenses are partly paid by the school. Thus, during four years the raw material passes through the various productive processes and when it comes out of the machine as the finished goods it is in a splendid shape, ready for the market. According to the Report of the Bureau in 1916, about 20% of the total number of high school teachers came from this school, and there is a great demand because the goods is a little bit cheaper than that from the university. Sometimes, however, criticisms are made upon the products of the higher normal school that (1) they are too similar, too uniform, and no individuality exists. This seems to be true, and there is probably more variety among the graduates of the university. Some maintain that this is caused by the too rigid discipline and the uniform regulations. Another criticism is (2) that the normal school graduates are generally inferior to the university graduates in their academic preparation. To this the school authorities reply that they may need more training, but (a) they can be improved by their individual study while at their service, and that (b) their academic attainment compared with that of the university graduate is rather high if the time of preparation is considered. On the whole, public opinion maintains that the higher normal school is very efficient machinery for teacher production, and occupies an important position in the edu-

cational world. The two teacher-training institutes belong to the same type as the higher normal. They are temporarily established in connection with the other institution, and will soon be abolished, so we will not consider them.

Those teachers who pass the certificate examination form a very heterogeneous group, but most of them are normal or high school graduates and have had some education in private schools not privileged for the certification, or are secondary school teachers, preparing for the examination while at service. They are rather well qualified in their special subjects, but sadly one-sided in their store of general knowledge. So as teachers, they can not compare with the two types above described. Besides, they make a very small fraction of the total population. The private privileged schools also supply a few every year, but they are, generally speaking, poorly qualified both in academic and professional preparations. Those from the universities in the foreign countries are seldom found in the high school, or in the general field of education. In the future the graduates of the university and the higher normal school will probably increase in number, and the secret competition for supremacy between them will be still more fierce.

The following table shows the qualifications of the high school teachers in 1916:--

TEACHERS QUALIFICATIONS

The Bureau's Report--1916

Date	Higher Normal Schools	Teacher Training Institutes	Imperial Universities	Others	Non-certificate	Total
1913-4	909	185	593	1297	1427	4401

N.B. "Others"-- includes (a) private schools and (b) those old teachers who obtained certificates under the old regulations and (c) those from the certificate examination.

9. The Director is the absolute monarch in his dominion of the school and his subjects are those teachers whom he selected from many applicants. He is chiefly an administrative official, and semi-officially directed to teach "morals" to the whole school. But he is too busy with his various duties, so he generally teaches "morals" to the upper classes. In order to keep the school machinery going smoothly, he must visit the prefecture governor or the superintendent, and cordially receive the students' parents or other guest. Moreover, as he is one of the leading men in his local community he is very busy in activities outside the school. Natu-

rally the school administration proper, such as the discipline or the supervision of teaching are often conducted by the "Sub-director," to whom is delegated the director's sovereignty. He is the head-teacher, experienced, best qualified, long in the service, and teaches one half of the regular teacher's work. The discipline of the school, however, is chiefly maintained by the "Student supervisor," and the good or bad discipline of one school is decided solely by his qualifications. He is a retired military officer and the head of the department of physical culture. Consequently he tends to apply military discipline to the high school. The routine in and out the classroom, the dormitory life, are of the military type. The dormitory superintendents are carefully appointed from the regular teachers who are best qualified to discipline the mischeivous youngsters. This is extra work, so additional salary is paid. The regular teachers are in charge of the following departments:- (a) morals, (b) the Japanese and Chinese languages, (c) foreign language, (d) geography and history, (e) natural science, (f) physics and chemistry, (g) mathematics, (h) music and drawing, (i) gymnastics. Each department has its head teacher who supervise his own department. The regular teacher has two duties, namely (1) to teach his special subject, and (2) to supervise one particular class to which he is assigned. For the latter, he takes charge of (a) students' scholarship, (b) disciplinary condition, (c) health, (d) general welfare, (e) student life outside the school, (f) vocational guidance, and (g) bridges the chasm between the school and the home. He teaches the class about 20 hours per week, so he is kept rather busy.

10. The tenure of the high school officials is premanent, and the security of their positions is guaranteed by the law. If they do not make signal failures in their work, act in a manner unbecoming, become incompetent due to age or to the lack of professional loyalty, they can enjoy the position permanently. They are seldom transferred to other schools by official order without their consent, except when they are lowered to inferior positions because of failure. So in any school the teacher migration is less than 10% per year.

The salary for the Director was from 900 yen to 2,000 yen, for the teacher from 350 yen to 1,800 yen in 1911. This is certainly too small even Japan where the cost of living is so low. This salary scale was fixed sometime ago when the living expense was very cheap, so lately the Bureau has been presenting "the revised salary bill" to the Congress without any success. Only last month the new salary bill passed the new Congress by the great efforts of the new Vice-Minister of the Bureau, and there will be a great increase in the new salary scale. In Japan, generally speaking, the salaries for the government positions are rather small than those in other fields, but the teachers' pay is among the lowest. However, (a) the social circle of the teacher has been traditional narrow, (b) his mode of life is very simple, and (c) he can make some extra income by tutoring or writing for publications, so he has a chance to equal the income of other officials. But there is one difficulty in connection with his living. His rate of advancement, compared with any other field of profession, is exceptionally slow. This comes from the small

financial expenditure of the high school, and the same situation exists in the elementary as well as in the higher education. Complaint is made by the Bureau of Education of the difficulty of getting men of great ability into the field of education. We may safely say that nowadays the population in this field is somewhat inferior to that in any other profession. The bases for promotion, the teacher's (a) academic preparation; (b) evidence as to professional success; (c) loyalty to school; (d) personality and adaptability; (e) attitude toward pupils; (f) physical condition; (g) period of service, and (h) what schools they came from, are usually emphasized too much, and not what the teachers themselves really are. Generally the promotion is rather fairly conducted, but as we mentioned before the two kinds of "school pool" of "university range" and "higher normal range" have very strong power in some cases. The Japanese seem to be somewhat narrow-minded, and have the tendency to discriminate in every thing, which probably comes from their autocracy. Personal whim is also influential among men of emotional type like the Japanese. It is not uncommon for teachers, after some years of growth, or with the maximum salary attained, to settle down slowly into a sure and comfortable position, do their work in a more or less perfunctory manner, and make no further efforts toward any increase in personal efficiency. The result is that the advance in education gradually leaves them behind. The power of the teacher's promotion is entirely in the director's hands, and the director himself is controlled by the prefecture superintendent. In either case the theory and practice of supervision is very inferior, in-

competent, and not close enough in touch with the teachers work properly to appreciate and evaluate it. The pension for the teacher is very scanty, but better than nothing, and it will be revised in the near future. The law states that "an official who has served for more than 15 years is entitled to a pension for life under the following circumstances:- (1) when allowed to retire, being over 60 years, (2) when retiring because of personal injury or illness, (3) when retiring owing to the office or institution being abolished or to a change in its organization, or at the termination of the period of temporary retirement.

Also entitled to pension if not 15 years, (1) if he retires owing to loss of use of one limb or more or something equivalent, due to bodily injury received in performance of his duties in service of state: (2) if he retires due to disease contracted by being engaged in performance of his duties in service of state. The amount of his pension is $\frac{1}{6}$ the amount of annual salary he was receiving at the time of retirement with addition of $\frac{1}{240}$ of the same for every full year he has served above 15 years up to 40 years. His widow is entitled to from $\frac{1}{3}$ to $\frac{2}{3}$ the amount that he would receive, while his orphan would receive even less than this amount." The Report of the Bureau in 1916 shows:-

Pension funds----3,496,402.466 in 1916

The High School

Date	: Pension retired:	Pension to the families:	Bonuses to fam-
:	teachers	: of deceased teachers	lies of deceas-
:	:	:	ed teachers.
1913-1916	: No. of re- : sum:	No. of recipients	: year
:	cipients :	:	No. of re- : sum
:	:	:	cipients :
:	131	:29,843 :	26
:	:	:	: 1,557 :
:	:	:	10
:	:	:	:576.

11. The Japanese, like the French, seem to have a mania for decorations. It is the common practice that after long faithful service the director and the teachers in the "Sonin" (see the beginning of this chapter) are decorated and given the title "Kurai," the official distinction which is considered a great honor for them. They are also honored by the private educational societies by the public recognition of their merit in the teaching profession. Quite recently the Bureau started the plan of sending the most eminent high school directors to Europe and America to observe the conditions of secondary education, with the understanding that honor and distinction are attached to this service. It is really an epoch-making event in secondary education, and there seems to be a sign of stimulation and awakening among the directors.

The punishments inflicted are very rare. The local prefecture government is authorized to discipline the teachers appointed by the governor, while the Bureau has authority over its appointees. As to the kinds there are (a) warning, (b) transfer to a lower position, (c) suspension without loss of salary for a period not exceeding one year, (d) deprivation of certificate, (e) suspension with partial or total loss of salary, (f) removal, (g) revocation, (h) permanent removal from teaching.

12. The lack of organization is certainly one of the most remarkable social traits in Japan. Her industrial and commercial drawbacks are chiefly ^{due} ~~dit~~ to this cause. In the field of education there are the several societies, but they are generally nominal organizations and have not any real function. In each

high school each department above named has its own "departmental meeting," (A) to get the cooperation among the teachers in the subject, (b) to study the methods of teaching, (c) to promote the general welfare of the department, and (d) to take the professional reading. This meets once a week for one or two hours, at a teachers' room after the school. About once every other week the whole teaching force takes "teachers assembly" where the discipline, the school work, or some other matters of general nature are discussed, and is often used as the advisory or the consulting body to the director. In some prefectures there are certain scientific societies or prefectural teachers' societies; both of them are in most cases scarcely more than nominal organizations. As a national teachers' organization, there¹ only one, "Imperial Teachers' Society" consisting of the celebrated educators, publicists, eminent schoolmen, teachers, and the Bureau's officials. This meets about once a year in the capital to discuss the problems in the field and often gives advice or recommendations to the Minister, or takes up some movement to influence the Congress or to educate the public. Considering the size, the spirit, or the function, it cannot be comparable to the professional organization in Germany. The teaching population in Japan, like the laboring class, is in its primitive stage, so far as the group organization is concerned, and they are often the victims of the "forced sale" and many other unfair actions at the hands of the Bureau or the public at large. We must eagerly hope that the day will soon come when they will wake from their long sleep, look back to their historical position in the feudal days.

CHAPTER V

PROGRAM AND TYPES OF TEACHING

The fundamental principles in the program making are (1) the doctrine of quantity rather than quality of subjects, and (2) the doctrine of equivalence of studies. Naturally the program is over crowded and it is impossible to master all subjects fixed. Against the uniform and rigid program, some advocate greater freedom in the elective system, while others propose two kinds of high school, one for preparation for higher schools, and another for complete liberal education in itself by curriculum differentiation. The former scheme was tried twelve years ago in the highly vocational high school where agriculture, commerce, and technology were taught, but this proved to be a failure and they have now the vocational secondary school. It is maintained that the early differentiation of curriculum is not favorable for the boys about whose future in most cases nobody can tell at this early stage. Moreover in the present state of popular feeling everybody would flock to the preparatory high school.

The Japanese high school has the five school years, and one year is a unit which corresponds to a semester here, and for convenience one year is divided into:-

The 1st term-----April 1st to July 20

summer vacation-July 21

to September 10.

The 2d term-----September 1 to December 25

while vacation-December 26
to January 7.

The 3d term-----January 7 to March 25

The 3d term-----January 7 to March 25

Spring vacation-March

26 to 31.

There are many national or local holidays when there are special convocations to celebrate them, and the minimum number of school days is 75 in the first and second term, and 55 in the third term. The following weekly schedule is repeated in the three terms:-

Schedule

63

Subjects	1st year	2nd year	3d yr.	4th yr.	5th yr.
1 Morals	1	1	1	1	1
2 Japanese language Chinese classics	7	7	7	7	7
3 Foreign language Eng. French. Germ.	6	6	7	7	7
4 History, Geography	3	3	3	3	3
5 Mathematics	4	4	4	4	4
6 Natural Science	2	2	2	2-1st term 1-2nd term	
7 Physics & Chemistry				3-1st term 4-2nd term	4
8 Law & Economics					2
9 Drawing	1	1	1	1	
10 Singing	1	1	1		
Gymnastics Military drill					
11 Fencing Tiu-jutsu	5	5	5	5	5
Total	30	30	31	32	32

- Rules:- 1. Law and economics can be substituted by foreign language, history or geography.
2. Singing can be substituted by drawing.
3. One hour drawing may be put in the 5th year.

In most high schools law and economics is substituted for the foreign language, and singing for drawing. For those who are preparing for the competitive entrance examination of the higher schools, nearly all schools are adding one or two hours in the 4th year and three or four hours in the 5th year. The last year, a two hours "industry course" is put as optional, but no school takes it.

General Instructions of the Bureau

(1) Instruction and culture must go together to attain a higher general education. (2) Object of teaching each subject and correlation between must be maintained. (3) Avoid confusing details and empty forms and give real correct understanding of subjects so that knowledge can be used. (4) Use textbooks whenever possible, but do not be a slave to them. (5) Uniform teaching--not minute in the earlier part and hurried toward the end of the year should be maintained. (6) Instruments specimens, drawings etc., used, need not be of fine make beyond the requirement of teaching. (7) Local libraries, museums, factories, experimental stations and the like should be utilized.

High School Subjects

1. Morals. The directions of the Bureau of Education

state that "the teaching of morals must be based on the precepts of the Imperial Rescript. Its object is to foster the growth of moral ideas and sentiments, and to give boys culture and character necessary for men of middle and higher social standing, and to encourage and promote the virtues. The teaching should begin with explaining the essential points of morals in connection with daily life by means of good words, or maxims and examples of good deeds, to be followed by a little more systematic exposition of the duties to self, to family, to society, and to the state, elements of ethics may also be taught."

Syllabus-- In the first and second years, practical teaching on familiar matters, chief points are (a) as pupils, (b) health, (c) study, (d) friendship, (e) bearing and action, (f) home, (g) state, (h) society, (i) culture of virtues. The third and fourth years, (a) obligations to self, (b) to family, (c) to society, (d) to state, (e) to humanity, (f) to nature. The fifth year (a) elements of ethics--essential factors of conducts, conscience, ideals, obligations, virtues, modes of cultivating virtues, relation between ethical and natural laws. (b) Essential points of morals--general survey and review of matters taught during the preceding years.

The Bureau's special directions describe:- (1) maxims and examples should not be emphasized too much and must suit modern life and pupils surroundings: avoid extraordinary examples. (2) In explanation of duties, remember the variation of boys' future occupations and social positions. So teaching must be all round applications. (3) In the third and fourth years, boys are in adolescence and likely to yield to temp-

tations. Take special care to form good habits. Elements of ethics should not be too advanced; avoid differences of theories, and teach only common notions. (5) Beside fête-days or anniversaries, if incidental teaching is necessary, the whole or a part of the school should be called. For teaching moral, use some textbook which has the officially prepared moral code, with the illustrations; the teacher should follow the book, chapter by chapter, just as in other subjects, by (a) the lecture method, or (b) the question-and-answer method.

The value of this subject "morals" is often doubted by some who believe as M. Croiset¹ that "the best moral lesson is perhaps that which occupies no fixed time in the school program, but which comes forth spontaneously, mainly from the very personality of the teacher and from all his words." From the modern view of the psychology of conduct, knowing is not doing as Plato believed, a right judgment does not necessarily accompany a volition.² Such an official pronouncement on the moral code with official elaboration of a text attached to specifically prepared illustrative material and culminating in prescribed proverbs or verse groups to clinch the general exposition do not amount anything. What degree of sincerity characterized its presentation, how much the dynamic volitional power is nourished by such a formal teaching? As J. N. Deahl says, our morals are built not by precept but by real conduct. In order to foster some real and vital powers in morals, the

1 Farrington--French Secondary Schools--p.299.

2 Sach--American Secondary Schools--p. 74.

director M. Kawada presented "The Kawada Bill" before the special meeting of the high school directors. He believes that the present official moral teaching is really valueless and needs to be mixed with some religious elements. The bill is now left open for discussion.

2. Vernacular and Chinese Classics. There are some peculiar difficulties in the vernacular learning:- (1) we have two kinds of alphabet evolved from Chinese characters and, (2) we use Chinese idiographs (a) as signs of sounds and (b) words, and (c) the same characters are often used as for both; (3) we use those characters mixed with our phonetic monosyllabic alphabet; (4) Chinese pronunciation and that ^{of} ~~is~~ Japanese of the same characters are quite different; (5) spoken and written language differ. Formerly Chinese literature formed a separate subject, but is now taught as a part of the Japanese language. It is a classic and its position is like the Greek or Latin here.

Syllabus:- (1) The ratio of the Japanese and the Chinese should be:-- (a) in the first year, 80% of the Japanese and 20% of the Chinese, and in the textbook both are combined. (b) in the second and third years, 70% Japanese and 30% Chinese, (c) in the fourth and fifth years, 60% Japanese and 40% Chinese. (2) Reading:-- In the first year, read writers of the present period, consisting of (a) letter form, (b) prose, and (c) verse; in the second year, modern writers; in the third year to fifth year, present, modern and mediaeval writers. (3) Grammar:- (a) Spelling of pure Japanese words and words derived from the Chinese, (b) parts of speech (c) rules of syntax, (d) form and usages peculiar to older period, (e) outline of changes of the

Japanese language. (4) Composition:-- (a) theme writing, narrative, descriptive, argumentative,--weekly fortnightly, monthly, (b) dictation--especially spelling and formation of Chinese idiographs, (c) paraphrasing from the written to the spoken and vice versa, (d) translation from Chinese into Japanese and vice versa, (5) penmanship--writing of chinese idiographs in formal, semi-cursive and cursive styles--one hour per week ^{from} the first to third year, (6) history of Japanese literature-- 3 hours in the third term of the fifth year.

The Bureau's special directions:-- "Teachers must not stop at boys merely understand the meaning of words and sentences in the textbook, but let them fully comprehend the matter, taking maps, pictures, specimens, etc. if necessary. (2) References to old matters or quotations should be explained to boys at once, so that they may not be troubled with unnecessary difficulties. (3) Boys are most liable to fall into mistakes in the use of verbs in grammar, therefore special attention must be paid to this point and exercises must be frequent. (4) No fixed rules can be given as to the style, or the method of teaching of composition, but generally care should be taken that it should not be too difficult or unfitted for common use; it should be practical. (5) Attention should be paid to those Chinese idiographs which are very like each other, and therefore very liable to be confounded, so that boys may be able to distinguish them accurately.

The vernacular is very important as the foundation of the national sentiment, while ^{it} has been sadly neglected and looked down upon as the result of the over-emphasis of the foreign languages and sciences among the high school subjects, caused from

the blind worship occidental civilization. For a long time, some higher schools did not include this subject in their competitive entrance examination, and though now they examine it, it is still valued much less than the foreign languages or mathematics. Naturally it occupies the most insignificant position among the high school subjects, and the vernacular teachers have the poorest qualifications with the least pay. The teachers have no enthusiasm; the students lack interest and are taking the subject simply because it is required. The Japanese has different forms in her spoken and written language and needs considerable practice. The material is not practical, but formal; the art of writing is not well taught; class discussion or constructive criticism on what has been written is seldom given. Generally some topic is assigned as "home work," and when handed in, teachers chiefly correct some grammatical mistakes, and after a few comments the papers are returned. In literature study, beyond the correct understanding of the text, no attempt at appreciation, or fostering aesthetic sentiment, is made. So the vernacular in Japan, in its importance, its spirit, its material, its teachers and its methods of teaching, cannot be compared with that of France.¹

3. Foreign Language. No people on earth are more handicapped than the Japanese in language study. When they are grown up to speak their mother tongue, they must learn the very complicated Chinese ideograph which is accompanied by many difficulties referred to already, and they must take at least elementary and

¹ Farrington-French Secondary Schools----p.206.

secondary education. Those who finished only the compulsory education can not understand the newspaper well. Those who start secondary education while they still find difficulty in reading current literature, must begin the foreign language along with the vernacular. As the "foreign language," English is taught in all high schools except a few. About ten years ago there was presented a question before the cultured public as to why the college or university graduates were so poorly qualified in foreign language. In 1908 a "Special Committee for Foreign Language Study" was appointed by the Bureau from the specialists in the field. Later they reported to the Bureau, stating, "those foreign languages have nothing in common with the vernacular, the methods in vogue in other countries do not seem much applicable in Japan." And they recommended that "two required foreign languages in colleges or universities must be reduced to one, and make the other optional." This recommendation was, after a great discussion, adopted in 1911. It might be expected that with six or seven hours a week during five years, a boy ought to be tolerably well grounded in English, but the result is quite unsatisfactory. Beside the fact of there being no similarity between English and Japanese as pointed by the "Special Committee," there is certainly a lack of well qualified Japanese teachers of English in the high schools. Baron Kikuchi¹ and others recommend the plans of having a summer school for teachers, getting more foreign teachers than they have now, and more investigation and study of the best method of teaching English.

1. Baron Kikuchi----The Japanese Education----P. 235.

In fact the difficulty of learning foreign language can not be compared with that of the classics for the American boys. In the secondary or in the higher, in the liberal or in the vocational institution, the students are devoting the greatest part of their time and energy to this study. The great percentage of the retardation and elimination in these schools come from this source. However, it is of vital importance to each individual for his future eminence and attainment; as a nation, Japan cannot over-emphasize it for her future expansion. Some most progressive men are trying to minimize the difficulty of language study for the Japanese by adopting the Roman alphabet for the Japanese and Chinese ideograph. At any rate, the study and the method of teaching in foreign language is one of the most important problems.

Syllabus:--(1) the first year--(a) Division--Start from very beginning in pronunciation, spelling dictation, conversation, translation, composition, grammar--incidentally not formal grammar. (b) Standard--is the first and second of the National Reader of Swinton's Royal Readers. (2) The second year--(a) Division--the same as the first year--(b) Standard--the second and third of the same Readers. (3) The third year--(a) Division--grammar somewhat systematic. (b) Standard--the third and the fourth of the same Readers. (4) The fourth year--(a) Division--same as the third. (b) Standard--the fourth of the same Readers. The fifth year--(a) Division--same as the fourth. (b) Standard--the fifth of the same Readers.

The Bureau's special directions:--(1) Care must be taken not to advance faster than boys can follow. The aim should be to

practice boys well. (2) Pronunciation, spelling, and writing, though not specially mentioned except in the first year, must be always practiced in connection with reading, conversation, composition, and dictation. (3) Pronunciation must be very strictly attended to and corrected at the beginning and attention must be paid to such sounds as do not occur in our language. (4) In making boys understand the meaning of English words, their equivalents in Japanese may be given, or they may be shown by means of actual objects or pictures; or in advanced classes they may be explained in English. (5) In paraphrasing into the Japanese correct language should be used, fitting as closely as possible into the original. During such lessons differences in sentiments, customs, rules, etc., should be pointed out. (6) Reading should be practiced repeatedly with pieces of which the boys already understand the meaning, and they should be made to repeat occasionally so that they may practice pronunciation, accent, intonation, pause, etc., until they are able to bring out the full meaning of a sentence by reading. (7) Dictation pieces should be taken out of readers or should be such that the boys can easily understand the meaning so that their ears may become accustomed to distinguish sounds, and they may at the same time get practice in spelling and writing. (8) Conversation should not first be about matters in the readers; after they have advanced a little the subjects may be taken from matters of daily life; boys must thus be made to understand English apart from the readers, and to express their thoughts. (9) In teaching grammar care must be taken not to burden the boys' minds with many complex rules;

rather they should get practice in the application. (10) Boys should be taught at suitable seasons how to use dictionaries, and they should gradually be made to use others besides the English--Japanese dictionary.

In practice, the teachers are following the Bureau's direction with some suitable modifications. At present each high school has its own foreign teacher--usually American--who is the authority on English in that school, and he is consulted more by the teachers than by the students. Some advocate sending the native teachers to England or America to study English, as they cannot expect to arrange an interchange of teachers between foreign countries as in France.

4. History and Geography.

Syllabus:----

The 1st year--1 hour per week

" 2nd "-- 2 " " "

" 5th " - 1 " " "

(1) In the fifth year of Japanese history, special reference must be given to the fundamental principles of our country, changes in administration, customs, society, relations with Korea, China, and other foreign countries, introduction of different forms of civilization from abroad, etc. (2) In the third year, two hours per week are spent on Oriental history, chiefly Chinese. (3) In the fourth year, two hours per week are given to teach the Ancient and the Mediaeval history of the world. (4) In the fifth year, one hour for Japanese history and one hour for Modern history of the world, are assigned.

The Bureau's directions:--(1) It should be made the aim of history teaching to make boys obtain clear notions concerning the evolution of and changes in society, rise, decline, and fall of states; and therefore, discussion or teaching of details must be avoided. (2) In teaching about the works of great men, their character, deeds, and the state of society of the time should be made clear, with a view to the cultivation of moral sentiments in boys. (3) Well-known poetical or prose pieces that are helpful in exposition of historical facts should be made use of in order to interest boys. (4) Facts that have special relations to the locality of the school should be treated rather fully. (5) In the teaching of foreign history, special attention should be paid to what bears relation to our country. (6) Comparative chronological tables showing contemporary events of our country and others should be utilized. Maps, real objects, specimens, etc. must be used to make boys obtain a real and vivid knowledge. (7) Proper names need not be necessarily the same as stated in the above syllabus. (8) Things that are required in the teaching of history are roughly the following:--

Tables--of successive Emperors, comparative chronological tables, genealogical tables of sovereigns and of great houses, historical maps of Japan, the East, and the West. Photographs and pictures of noted castles, battle field and other places of historical interest, portraits, autographs of great men, historical documents--real or copied; real objects, models or pictures serving to show changes in the manners, customs, industrial arts, degrees of civilization.

N.B. 15.--(1) As for foreign proper names, in 1902 a special committee settled upon uniform nomenclature to be used in schools.

(2) As to autographs, historical documents, several lithograph facsimile sets of important autographs and documents have been lately published. (3) History like some other subjects taught in special rooms.

Geography--Syllabus:--

The first year--2 hours	(a) Introductory geography	(b) Japanese Geog.
The second " 1 "	Oriental geography	
The third " 1 "	Universal geography	
The fourth " 1 "	" "	
The fifth "	Physical geography	

Directions--The fundamental principle is the same as in History. (1) Connect geography with facts boys know. (2) Comparative and correlated study, with Japan as its center. (3) Place greater emphasis upon those countries in closer relation with Japan. (4) Do not crowd boy's minds with details or complex masses of facts and numbers. (5) Connect places with historical events. (6) Interest boys references to well-known pieces of poetry or prose. (7) Make use of maps, pictures, photographs, specimens, tables, etc. (Weather maps, earthquake charts.)

History and geography are very significant for the national education, but they occupy really the insignificant position in the high school subjects, only because they are not examined in the competitive entrance examinations of the higher

schools. Like the vernacular, they are neglected by the students, and the teachers of those subjects are inferior in their qualifications and more poorly paid compared with those in mathematics or English. In Japanese history such traditions as (1) the "Divine¹ theory" about the origin of the state or (2) the "Patri-archal² theory" about the growth of the nation are emphatically taught with the aim of fostering the national spirit and the loyalty to the Emperor. We rather doubt the permanent value of the subject matter in the student's mind, and must blame the unscientific attitude of the historians. There is still another defect, namely, there is no correlation between history and the present-civics^{and} is mostly excluded from the program. The social sciences, such as economics, politics, and sociology, are very much neglected due to the autocracy. Their ideas and activities in this field are in a very primitive stage.

5 Mathematics--Syllabus:--

The 1st year-- 4 hours--arithmetic

The 2nd " (-- 2 hours--arithmetic
 (-- 2 hours--algebra

The 3rd " (-- 2 hours--algebra
 (-- 2 hours--plain geometry

The 4th " (-- 2 hours--algebra
 (-- 2 hours--plain geometry

The 5th " (-- 2 hours--solid geometry
 (-- 2 hours--trigonometry.

1 Garner: Introduction to Political Science--P. 169.

2 Ibid., P. 173.

The Bureau's Special directions:--(1) The language used in the enunciations and demonstration of the laws and propositions should be correct and exact that boys may obtain correct and exact comprehension of them. (2) In arithmetic it is not sufficient to teach rules simply; boys must be made to practice and to acquire proficiency in correct and rapid calculation. (3) Boys should be made to apply tests of correctness, so as to gain self-confidence. (4) Examples chosen for arithmetical exercises should be such as have an intimate relation to ordinary affairs of life and business; in examples on percentage and other like calculations, especially, care should be taken to explain the matter to boys. (5) In algebra, linear equations should not be taught all together; easier ones should be given as early as possible in order to stimulate the interest of boys in algebra. (6) In teaching geometry, great importance should be attached to the strictness of reasoning. For example, in teaching proportion, the difficulty must not be passed over with incomplete explanation, or slurred over with inexact reasoning; if boys are not advanced enough it is better to assume the whole for a time, and return to the subject later on. (7) Problems of construction should be given at places suitable for demonstration. (8) It is preferable to give explanations of different forms of theorems and their mutual relations after boys are a little advanced, rather than at the beginning. (9) In trigonometry, measurements of heights and distances, with practical exercises, should be given as early as possible, so as to make use of the true value of the circular functions first and afterward to use logarithmic

values. (10) In teaching mathematics enough instruments must be used. The subject matter of mathematical teaching cannot differ very much, but the method of treatment and relative importance attached to several parts of the subject vary a good deal in different countries. We began with adopting American methods of those days in the earlier days of Meiji, but we have been changing since then, gradually adapting the teaching to our needs, and so finding a system of our own.

The teaching of mathematics is probably the best among the high school subjects. The teachers of the subjects are best paid and naturally best qualified. The students attach great importance to it as well as to English, partly because it is required in the competitive examination, and partly because they must study hard in order to get the credit. In teaching mathematics, thoroughness is strongly emphasized and the class room procedure is the same as in the French lycée. The class room is the place where large assignments are mastered and discussed in which independent thinking and freedom is encouraged and enough drill given.

6. Natural Sciences--Syllabus No. 1:-

The first year mineralogy

The second " botany

The third " (a) 1st & 2d term--physiology
and hygiene
(b) 3d term-- zoology.

The fourth " zoology.

1. Farrington--French Schools PP. 208--209.

The Bureau's directions--(1) School room instructions should be accompanied by field observations, and should give clear concrete knowledge. (2) Power of observation and description based on actual objects should be assiduously cultivated. Habit of forming one's judgment by appeals to actual objects should be fostered. Simple sketches of specimens showing their most important characteristics should be required. (3) Although mineralogy, botany, zoology, are taught separately the mutual relations of those kingdoms must be kept. (4) About the objects beneficial or injurious to human life, teach the reasons and practical applications. (5) Local scenery and the kinds, distribution and ecology of objects which constitute it must be explained objectively, so that love of nature and home land may be aroused. Again study the characteristics of the zones to realize the pleasure of traveling in foreign lands. (6) For plant and animal study, take common native material, but do not neglect the important ones of the world. (7) In anatomy and histology, make dissections of animals; use the microscope for simple histological structures. Use dissection of animals to teach structures of human viscera. Demonstrate frog's web for circulation in capillaries. (8) For plant study, use the object lesson whenever possible. (9) In physiology and hygiene, mutual interdependence of different organ system must be taught. (10) In physiology and hygiene, boys daily experience should be referred to and taught as inductively as possible. (11) Interest boys by getting appropriate chances and daily observation

of phenomena. (12) Relate hygiene to our daily life. (13) Helpful instruments and appliances should be utilized.

Syllabus No. 2:--

Mineralogy:-- The first year two hours per week (a) Rock crystal and sandstone--coal--clay, clay slate--lime--petroleum--sulphur--silver--copper, lead, iron--gold--ornamental stones--rocks--the earth, (b) common daily objects--representative rocks, minerals--their morphology character, occurrence, origin, changes, applications and natural geological relations should be given, so that a correct general notion of the whole mineral kingdom may be imparted.

Botany:-- The second year two hours per week. Morphology--anatomy--physiology--ecology--classification--distribution--economical use. (a) Objective lesson, (b) inductive method, (c) taste--important.

Physiology and Hygiene:-- The third year, the first and second term--two hours. Introduction--skeleton system--muscular system--digestive system--circulatory system--respiratory system--kidneys--nervous system--sense organ--matters relating to the body as a whole--public hygiene.

Zoology:-- The third year--third term--two hours per week.

The fourth year--first and second terms two week. Third term--one hour.

(a) Classification--habit--anatomy and histology--reproduction, development, growth--ecology--changes in the animal kingdom--relations of the animal and plant kingdom--practical application.

(b) The fourth year--the third term, subject matters taught

since the first year should be summarized and such topics as the delicate interdependence of the natural world, struggle for existence, natural and artificial selections, outline of "evolution" theory, be touched to let boys comprehend relations of man to nature. (4) Time and equipment unsufficient at present to allow boys practical work. But botanical garden, laboratory, aquaria of silkworms etc., are kept.

The chief aim of all instruction in the natural sciences is, as in the German secondary schools,¹ to cultivate the habit of keen and accurate observation, to strengthen the pupil's reasoning powers, and to increase his ability of expressing clearly what he sees and thinks. The acquisition of a fund of systematic knowledge or useful information is a secondary consideration. However, from the poor financial situation of the school budget, except a few, no laboratories are provided for individual work in natural science, and consequently from the very beginning the opportunity for individual observation is greatly restricted. To overcome this obstacle, enough collections illustrating almost every department of natural science have been gathered by many of the leading schools. But without laboratory work there is small chance of promoting those habits of "keen and accurate observation," everywhere demanded of instruction in science. And there is, as in the case of Germany,² an obvious contradiction between the demands of theory and the results of practice. In other re-

(1) Russel -- German Higher Schools -- P 320

(2) Russel -- German Higher Schools -- P 332

spects, too, practice often lags far behind theory.

7. Physics and chemistry. Syllabus I :-- Physics--the fifth year--four hours per week. Dynamics--properties of matter--sound--heat--light--magnetism--statical electricity--current electricity.

Syllabus 2:-- Chemistry--the fourth year--the first and second terms--three hours per week; the third term--four hours. Common gases--oxygen and its compounds--hydrogen and its compounds--sulphur and its compounds--solution--nitrogen, phosphorus, arsenic and their compounds--active mass--carbon, silicon, boron, and their compounds--metals and their compounds--periodic law--organic compounds in general--aliphatic compounds--aromatic compounds--fermentation and putrefaction.

The Bureau's directions:-- (1) As many experiments as the equipment allows, and specimens shown. Illustrations and examples should be from common daily experience. (2) Teach clear distinction between density--gravity, mass--weight. (3) Conservation of matter and conservation of energy as foundation of physics various divisions of physics be taught. (4) Chemical laws and theories in relation to well known facts to boys. Give practical application and avoid theoretical discussions. Items under the subject of "solutions" are rich in fact relating to daily life, and these must be fully explained and appropriate examples and illustrations. (5) Easy and simple exercises in calculation should be given from time to time to make boys' knowledge more exact. (6) Experiment for the class should be so prepared as no failure during the lesson. (7) Show experiment

to the whole class, not to a few near the teacher. (8) Utilize local factories for object lessons in mechanical and chemical industries. (9) Physics and chemistry should be taught by the same teacher; this is desirable to get correlation between them and also other subjects; relate natural science and mathematics. (10) Technical terms used:--Physics--dictionary by Tokio--Mathematics--Physical society--Chemistry--vocabulary by Profs. Takamatsu and Sakurai.

In physics and chemistry, like natural history, laboratory work is practically unknown. A typical lesson always includes a review of the principles and experiments of previous lessons, to have a direct bearing upon what is next to be presented. The teacher explains the nature of the apparatus with which he is to deal. Certain conditions are stated, and the class makes the discussion. Then this preliminary preparation is followed by the teacher's demonstration, guiding the class to make observation and to describe what he has discovered. At the conclusion of a lesson topic, the students are directed to consult the textbook and afterward write up their notes. As a whole, the method of teaching is the German type.

The teachers in this department are rather well qualified and paid most, partly due to the insufficient supply. The students put some value on them as they are requisites for the competitive entrance examination of the higher institution.

8. Drawing -- Syllabus:--

- (a) Freehand drawing--(1) Japanese painting or (2) foreign drawing.
- (b) Geometrical " --Easy geometrical constructions in

the second year before he learns geometry.

(2) In the fourth year--more difficult constructions in plane and solid geometry.

(3) In the fifth year--teach elements of perspective.

(4) In freehand drawing-- draw from actual objects as possible and also practice designing.

Drawing occupies a very small share of the time in the program, and it is of a somewhat formal character. So its value cannot amount to much, but it is one potent factor in the creation and development of the artistic spirit and appreciation. However, it does not probably accomplish such a superior¹ result as it is in the French lycee.

9. Physical Training Syllabus:--

- (a) Gymnastic exercise)
- (b) Military drill) one hour each per week.
- (c) Fencing or Jiu-jitsu three hours per week.
- (d) Foreign games and sports)
- (e) Swimming) optional

For gymnastic exercise the Swedish system is used chiefly for the systematic--though a somewhat too mechanical--physical training, while military training is given with the aim of disciplinary value, taking only a fundamental training without going to the advanced. Fencing, or Jiu-jitsu occupies the most prominent position in the group, and it is believed that "these arts do not stop at merely making pupils expert in them, it includes² inuring of the body to hardship and privation, and the cultivation of endurance, tenacity of purpose, readiness

(1) Farrington--French Secondary Schools.--P320.

(2) Kikuchi -- The Japanese Education.--P.36.

of resources, coolness in danger, and like qualities deemed essential for a "sumurai", and instructors responsible for the mental and moral training of their students. From this idea nearly every high school takes the "Kangeiko" (the cold training--literally translated.) It consisted in young men and even small boys assembling in the school and practicing the arts in the early morning hours, almost before it is light, without any heating accommodations, during thirty days in the coldest season of the year. Their idea, attitude, and spirit toward these national arts are something like that of the ancient Spartan. Foreign games and sports include baseball, tennis, and association foot-ball, for which they are very enthusiastic as American or English lads, but they cannot enjoy it as much as they want, as they are so busy with their over-crowded curriculum and heavily assigned home work. As to the gymnasium, the equipment is very poor. As long as the weather permits, the exercises are mainly conducted, as in the lyc¹ée, in the open air. So parallel bars, horizontal bars, horses, swings, and the "shelf" are set on the athletic field. The gymnasium serves for the gymnastics chiefly in periods of inclement weather, beside its daily use for fencing and Jiu²jutsu. The teacher for gymnastics and military drill is generall a retired soldier and fencing or Jiu²jutsu is taught by a special master. The teachers in this department are looked down upon by the students, for they generally have not enough education, and their salary is only about

(1) - (2) Farrington--French Secondary Schools --P.308.

a half of that of the science or language teacher. But nowadays the higher normal schools are supplying the new types of teachers who have certificates in other subjects as well as in gymnastics, and the old teachers are being replaced by them. So before very long all the physical education will be upon a higher and saner plane¹, as in France.

10. Music, Law and Economics. Except for a very few, the high schools are replacing music with drawing, and law and economics with foreign language. The Japanese have a strange notion about music, that it feminizes boys. They maintain that it is the female's business to be skilled in music, and to entertain the man, to whom she is subordinate. Natuarlly it is quite neglected in the program. As to the civics, we have discussed this already, and will not repeat here.

As to the standard of the high school subjects, Baron Kikuchi² estimates that it is lower than that of the German gymnasium, the French lycée, or the English public school. So they need three years higher preparatory college to the Imperial university, which requires a fairly high standard of knowledge a standard which corresponds to the first class universities in Europe. From the point of view of the standard, therefore, the Japanese high school is comparable to that of America.

(1) Farrington -- French Secondary Schools --P .307

(2) Kikuchi -- The Japanese Education --P. 125

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

From the descriptions and discussions in the preceding chapters, we may recommend the following:

I. In the Administration and Organization.

1. Select more higher officials of the Bureau from the men of better professional qualifications and experience.
2. Encourage democracy in the school organization.
3. Eliminate all unfair discriminations to private schools.
4. Have freedom and variety.

II. In Finance.

1. Secure a larger educational budget by educating the public.
2. Stimulate the individual initiative and interest in education so that they will offer private endowment for the support of education.

3. Emphasize the need for better equipment.

III. In Supervision.

1. Revolutionize the superintendent's qualifications and get men of professional experience and ability.
2. Minimize the director's office routine so that he can supervise teachers more intensively.
3. Encourage more friendly relations between teachers, directors, and the local and central superintendents.

IV. In Teaching Force.

1. Eliminate "school pool" and personal whims, and establish a fair basis for selection and appointment.
2. Have more rigid tests and requirements for the non-examination certification.
3. Some professional preparation must be required for the University graduates.
4. There must be recommended much better pay and pension.
5. Professional organization of the German type is recommended.

6. Better qualifications and professional spirit should be insisted upon.

V. In Curriculum and Types of Teaching.

1. There must be greater flexibility in the curriculum.
2. More emphasis should be placed on social sciences and civics and sociology should be added.
3. The development type of teaching should be substituted for the knowledge type.
4. There should be greater freedom from the competitive entrance examinations, for the higher schools.
5. There should be better methods of assignment, supervise study, and less home study.

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